

Title: Abrupt CO₂ release to the atmosphere under glacial and early interglacial climate conditions

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Abstract: Pulse-like CO₂ release to the atmosphere on centennial timescales has only been identified for the most recent glacial and deglacial periods and is thought to be absent during warmer climate conditions. Here, we present a high-resolution CO₂ record from 330,000 to 450,000 years before present, revealing pronounced Carbon Dioxide Jumps (CDJ) under cold and warm climate conditions. CDJ come in two varieties that we attribute to invigoration or weakening of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation and associated northward and southward shifts of the Intertropical Convergence Zone, respectively. We find that CDJ are pervasive features of the carbon cycle that can occur during interglacial climate conditions if land ice masses are sufficiently extended to be able to disturb the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation by freshwater input.

One Sentence Summary: Ice core record reveals centennial-scale CO₂ releases to the atmosphere under past cold and warm climate states.

Main Text: Analyses of Antarctic ice cores have demonstrated that atmospheric CO₂ has been a major driver of Earth's climate on orbital to millennial time scales (1-3). However, evidence of sub-millennial scale CO₂ variability is only available for the last ~60 thousand years (ka), i.e., not beyond the last glacial period (e.g., 4-6). Climate-carbon cycle

5 perturbations during previous interglacial periods serve as first-order templates for the natural response of Earth's climate system to warmer climatic background conditions (7), but so far the use of CO₂ records to decipher sub-millennial scale variations has been hampered by insufficient temporal resolution of existing ice core records.

Previous research identified two principal modes of CO₂ variability on millennial to
10 centennial time scales: (i) millennial-scale Carbon Dioxide Maxima (CDM) frequently occurring during the last glacial period (4, 5, 8) and (ii) centennial-scale Carbon Dioxide Jumps (CDJ) caused by pulse-like CO₂ releases to the atmosphere, most prominently occurring during the last deglaciation (6, 9).

CDM are characterized by a triangular shape of evolving CO₂ changes. They closely
15 covary with Antarctic temperature proxy records on millennial timescales as evidenced by the Antarctic Isotope Maxima (4, 8, 10). During cold periods (stadials) in the Northern Hemisphere (NH), CO₂ is observed to increase gradually and in parallel to the bipolar seesaw response in Antarctic temperature (11) at typical rates of ~1 ppm per century (4, 8). CDM reach amplitudes of up to 30 ppm before their trends are reversed connected with a sudden
20 strengthening of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) linking the onset of Dansgaard-Oeschger (DO) events (i.e., abrupt warming over Greenland) and the start of slow cooling in the Southern Ocean (SO) region (4, 8, 11).

In contrast, abrupt CDJ do not directly correspond to variations in Antarctic temperature but are associated with either DO events or Heinrich Stadials (HS) in the NH (6,
25 12, 13). The latter are characterized by extended cold periods in the NH associated with a

weakened AMOC (14-16). The few CDJ identified so far are superimposed on gradually increasing millennial CO₂ trends connected to CDM or glacial terminations and lead to a sudden 10 to 15 ppm CO₂ rise within less than ~250 years at rates of ~10 ppm per century, about ten times faster than CDM. As of yet, CDJ have only been identified during the last
5 deglaciation (Termination I) (6, 9) and for HS 4 (12, 13), occurring at 39.5 ka BP (thousand years before present, defined as 1950 CE). CDJ are synchronous with either major methane (CH₄) rises linked to DO events or small CH₄ peaks associated with HS, suggesting a link with sudden AMOC changes and poleward shifts of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) (6, 17, 18). Here we address whether CDJ also occur during glacial growth phases
10 and interglacial climate conditions and therefore whether they are a pervasive feature of the past carbon cycle.

Centennial to millennial-scale CO₂ variability between ~150 and 400 ka BP could not be explored because of insufficient measurement precision and low temporal resolution of the existing CO₂ record available for this period (1). Here we investigate the older part of this
15 interval by presenting a high-resolution record of CO₂ mole fractions covering a full glacial-interglacial cycle from 330 to 450 ka BP [i.e., Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 9e - 12a (19)], measured on samples from the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core using an improved dry-extraction technique (20). In comparison to earlier data (1, 2), we enhance the precision by a factor of three (now ~1 ppm) and increase temporal resolution four to six times (now ~300
20 years on average).

Together with CO₂ we improve the resolution of the existing EDC CH₄ record (21) to an average of ~250 years at periods of abrupt changes (20). This permits a direct comparison of the CH₄ imprint of fast climate changes in the NH with the Southern Hemisphere bipolar seesaw response in Antarctic temperature and atmospheric CO₂ (4, 8). We combine our ice
25 core data with new records of benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of *C. wuellerstorfi* (22) and planktic

$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of *G. bulloides* (23). These stable isotope data are measured on marine sediment core samples from the International Ocean Discovery Program (IODP) Site U1385 located on the Iberian Margin off the coast of Portugal in a water depth of ~2600 m below sea level (20). A temporal resolution of ~150 years on average enables us to directly compare our ice core data to this independent paleoclimatic archive of hydrological change in the North Atlantic (NA).

On orbital timescales, the new CO_2 record reveals generally high CO_2 levels persisting above 260 ppm (24) over ~35 ka during the exceptionally long interglacial period MIS 11c - e from 427 to 393 ka BP (Fig. 1B) extending over more than one precessional cycle (25). The minimum CO_2 value of 187.6 ± 1.0 ppm is reached at 358 ka BP coinciding with the lowest sea surface temperature (SST) [Fig. 2D, 2G, and 2H, (26)]. However, the onset of the deglacial CO_2 rise towards MIS 9e (Termination IV), only takes place ~13.5 ka later at 344.5 ka BP. The end of this deglacial CO_2 increase (~335 ka BP) is marked by a peak CO_2 value of 300.4 ± 1.0 ppm, representing the highest natural CO_2 mole fraction derived from Antarctic ice cores over the past 800 ka. Superimposed on this orbital trend we identify different types of millennial to centennial-scale CO_2 variability, occurring most frequently during, but not limited to, the glacial growth phase.

On millennial timescales, the CO_2 record mirrors the variability in the EDC temperature proxy [Fig. 1A, 2A, (10)] and dust flux records [Fig. 2B, (27)], a feature previously observed over the last 800 ka in lower resolution CO_2 data (2, 3). Our new benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record from the IODP Site U1385 follows the same pattern (Fig. 2C) indicating the influence of southern-sourced deep-water as first noted for the last glacial period (MIS 3) (28). Our results demonstrate that this correlation also applies to MIS 10a - 11a, thereby emphasizing the key role of SO processes in the bipolar seesaw (4, 11) and associated global-scale climate regime shifts in shaping atmospheric CO_2 on millennial timescales. We identify in total seven CDM events (Fig. 1B). The two youngest events (CDM 9e and 10b) were

identified previously (1), but not the oldest five (CDM 11a.1 to 11e). Furthermore, our record shows that the covariation of CO₂ and the Antarctic temperature proxy (10) holds also for the extended interglacial period MIS 11c (Fig. 1A, 1B), where both Antarctic temperatures and CO₂ gradually increase along with the summer insolation at 65°N (25). The time where CO₂ and Antarctic temperature cease to covary in our record is at the end of MIS 11c, when Antarctic temperature leads the CO₂ decrease by several thousand years, similar to what is observed for the glacial inception after the penultimate interglacial (29).

On the centennial timescale, we detect eight CDJ occurring under very different climate boundary conditions (Fig. 1B). They are marked by centennial-scale peaks in the rate of change of CO₂ exceeding a threshold of 1.5 ppm per century in the ice core record [Fig. 1D, (20)]. The close correlation of millennial-scale CO₂ variability with Antarctic temperature (Fig. 1A) does not hold for CDJ (Fig. 3A, S1A). While all CDJ lead to an abrupt ~10 ppm rise in CO₂ (Table S1), their underlying causes may be different (13, 30). We distinguish two varieties of CDJ based on the presence (or absence) of a major simultaneous CH₄ rise at the same depth level of the ice core (20).

The first variety of CDJ is synchronous with rapid rises in the CH₄ record greater than 50 ppb (Fig. 1C, 3C) and growth rates exceeding 20 ppb per century as recorded in the EDC ice core (Fig. 1E, 3E). We dub these pulse-like CO₂ release events CDJ+. Following this definition, we identify five new CDJ+ (9e, 11a.2 - 4, and 11e; Fig. 1B). The major CH₄ rises associated with CDJ+ indicate abrupt DO-like warming in the NH directly linked to AMOC invigorations (6, 17). Direct evidence for such AMOC strengthening comes from associated abrupt rises in SST in the NH (Fig. 2F - H) and increases of benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Fig. 2I), indicative of the inflow of NA deep-water masses at IODP Site U1385. These findings are consistent with the two previously identified CDJ+ events during the last deglaciation at the onsets of the Bølling-Allerød and Preboreal periods (6, 9).

The most pronounced CDJ+ (CDJ+ 9e) takes place during early interglacial conditions when CO₂ values are already above 285 ppm, a level that is higher than typical peak CO₂ mole fractions during interglacial conditions over the past 800 ka (3). The time resolution for CDJ+ 9e is better than 90 years and shows an exceptionally fast CO₂ increase of ~10 ppm per century, as preserved in the ice archive. Accounting for the smoothing of atmospheric signals by the bubble enclosure process, we estimate an original rate of atmospheric CO₂ increase of 26.2±17.6 ppm per century [Fig. 3B, Table S1, (20)]. This provides a benchmark of the possible range and speed of positive carbon cycle feedbacks connected to AMOC variations during the deglaciation. This rate exceeds previous estimates of maximum pre-industrial atmospheric increase rates (31) by a factor of seven, but this is still a factor of nine lower than recent anthropogenic growth rates over the past decade (32). The CO₂ decrease after CDJ+ 9e shows that natural processes during interglacial conditions allowed for a sustained CO₂ removal from the atmosphere estimated at ~2 ppm per century for about 2 ka (Fig. 1B, 3B).

The second variety of CDJ occurs independently from major responses in the EDC CH₄ record (Fig. 1E, 3C, 3E, see supplementary text) and is dubbed CDJ-. We identify two CDJ- (10a and 11a.2), which share similar characteristics with the two CDJ- events associated with HS 1 during the last deglaciation (~16 ka BP) and HS 4 (6, 12, 13). We speculate that CDJ- can be attributed to carbon cycle processes caused by AMOC weakening. Although direct AMOC records do not yet exist for MIS 9e - 12a, abrupt decreases of benthic δ¹³C indicate intrusions of Antarctic Bottom Water masses at IODP Site U1385 (Fig. 2I) likely due to AMOC weakening, similar to that which happened during HS in the last glacial period (14, 15). Note that major HS (HS 10.1 and HS 10.2) are identified in Fig. 2 by the drop in U^k₃₇-based sea surface temperature (Fig. 2G) and the decrease in benthic δ¹³C (Fig. 2I) indicative of a reduced state of the AMOC. While CDJ- 10a is likely

related to carbon cycle responses to an AMOC slow-down caused by massive ice discharge during HS 10.1 (Fig. 2I), there exists only ambiguous evidence for CDJ- 11a.2 being associated with freshwater forcing. Low CH₄ levels (Fig. 2E) and cold SST in the NA (Fig. 2F) indicate stadial conditions in the NH associated with CDJ- 11a.2. Given the relative age uncertainties between our ice core and independently dated records (33, 34), the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ calcite record from Sanbao Cave [Fig. 2J, (35)] indicates a major shift of the ITCZ that may be associated with CDJ- 11a.2 (18, 36).

Most notably, the new CO₂ record reveals the clearly distinguishable CDJ 11c (12.9±2.7 ppm increase within 191±123 years, Fig. 3B, Table S1) at 415 ka BP, occurring ~10 ka into interglacial temperature conditions at Dome C, but still at a time of considerable sea level rise [Fig. 2K, (37)]. A hiatus in the section older than 407 ka BP at IODP Site U1385 obscures potential signals related to this event (20). A distinct peak found in a proxy for SST conditions at 412 ka BP [Fig. 2F, (38)] is indicative of hydrographic disturbance in the NA. A possible perturbation of the AMOC at the same time (39) may be connected to this event, both of which may be attributed to a major freshwater forcing at the time of near deglaciation of the southern Greenland Ice Sheet in the early part of MIS 11c (40). Another recent study suggests a major ice-sheet discharge event into the SO that might also coincide with this CDJ at 415 ka BP (41), but dating uncertainties do not permit an unambiguous attribution. While there is limited evidence supporting an AMOC perturbation around 415 ka BP, it remains unclear whether CDJ 11c is associated with an AMOC weakening or strengthening. Given the lack of a major CH₄ rise in our record (Fig. 3C, 3E) we classify this event as a CDJ- (CDJ- 11c); however, it could mechanistically also be a CDJ+, with an atypical CH₄ response caused by already warm climate conditions in the NH.

Invigorations of the AMOC during DO events lead to abrupt increases in cross-equatorial heat transport to the NH (15, 42), which may be a necessary (yet not a sufficient)

condition for the occurrence of CDJ+ events (6, 43). As a direct consequence of this energy imbalance the ITCZ shifts northward and promotes a poleward shift and intensification of westerlies in the NH (18, 42). Driven by this shift in the ITCZ, new tropical wetlands are formed in the NH, which leads to an extended increase in CH₄ production (17, 18).

Conversely, we presume that CDJ- are associated with a weakening of the AMOC causing a southward shift of the ITCZ which is promoting the formation of wetlands in the SH. The latter results in an initial overshoot in the CH₄ production that coincides with CDJ- during HS 1 and HS 4 (18). These small, short-lived CH₄ peaks of amplitudes smaller than ~50 ppb are distinct from major CH₄ rises associated with CDJ+; however, both CH₄ responses proceed at comparable growth rates. The absence of any short-lived CH₄ peaks related to CDJ- in our record (Fig. 3C, S1C) – similar to those found for HS 1 and HS 4 (18) – can be explained by a combination of relatively low sample resolution and the bubble enclosure process that smooths the EDC gas record. The latter results in the obliteration of any potential CH₄ peaks smaller than ~50 ppb lasting for less than 200 years (see supplementary text). Accordingly, we use the absence of a major CH₄ rise as a criterion to distinguish a CDJ- from a CDJ+. Whereas the climate conditions for CDJ+ are characteristic for DO events in the NH, CDJ- appear to be connected with major freshwater forcing and stadial conditions in the NH (6, 13, 18).

The strong correspondence of the CO₂ record with Antarctic temperature and benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at the Iberian Margin on the millennial time scale (Fig. 2A, 2C, 2D) suggests a causal link of CDM formation with SO processes (8). Proposed CDM generating mechanisms include perturbations in the carbon cycle owing to changes in deep SO ventilation related to changes in stratification, buoyancy forcing, and Southern Hemisphere westerlies (e.g., 44, 45), variations of the southern sea ice edge (e.g., 46), efficiency of the biological pump

caused by changes in either the magnitude of dust-induced iron fertilization (e.g., 44), or mode changes in the AMOC (e.g., 47).

On the contrary, the underlying CO₂ release mechanisms for the CDJ are poorly understood. Suggested marine mechanisms include outgassing due to increasing SST (30), rapid ventilation of accumulated respired carbon from intermediate-depth Atlantic (43, 48), or SO deep-water masses (49, 50). Despite the coherence of CDJ with AMOC changes, and associated deep-water reorganizations in the NA [Fig. 2I, (6, 43)], the carbon source for CDJ may not necessarily originate from the ocean. Proposed terrestrial sources include permafrost thawing in the NH (51), drought-induced biomass decomposition (6, 30), and changes in precipitation and vegetation distribution connected to ITCZ shifts (18, 36). To explain a 10 ppm CDJ in the atmosphere caused by carbon release from the land biosphere, ~80 Pg of carbon are needed (52). For most of these processes, a shift of the position of the ITCZ and resulting changes in the mid to high-latitude westerly winds (53) are necessary to couple the cross-equatorial heat transport in the NA to the global carbon cycle (11, 42).

In summary, our CO₂ record from the EDC ice core provides evidence for centennial-scale CDJ during glacial, deglacial and early interglacial conditions. These suggest fast, pulse-like CO₂ releases to the atmosphere during MIS 9e - 12a that are likely related to abrupt changes in AMOC (Fig. 2I) and shifts in the position of the ITCZ (Fig. 2E). Our data imply that CDJ are a pervasive feature of the natural carbon cycle that may go undetected in CO₂ records of insufficient temporal resolution and precision. We stress that such CDJ also occur during interglacial temperature conditions, as long as fresh-water discharge from remnant ice sheets persists and is able to disturb ocean circulation. Anthropogenic warming and the committed ice sheet melting and associated sea level rise over the coming millennia (54) constitute new drivers that might trigger ocean circulation changes, and hence, pulse-like CO₂

releases such as those detected in our record during an earlier interglacial period when AMOC was perturbed.

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15 **Supplementary Materials:**

Materials and Methods

Supplementary text

Figures S1-S9

Table S1

20 References (55-86)

Data S1-S2

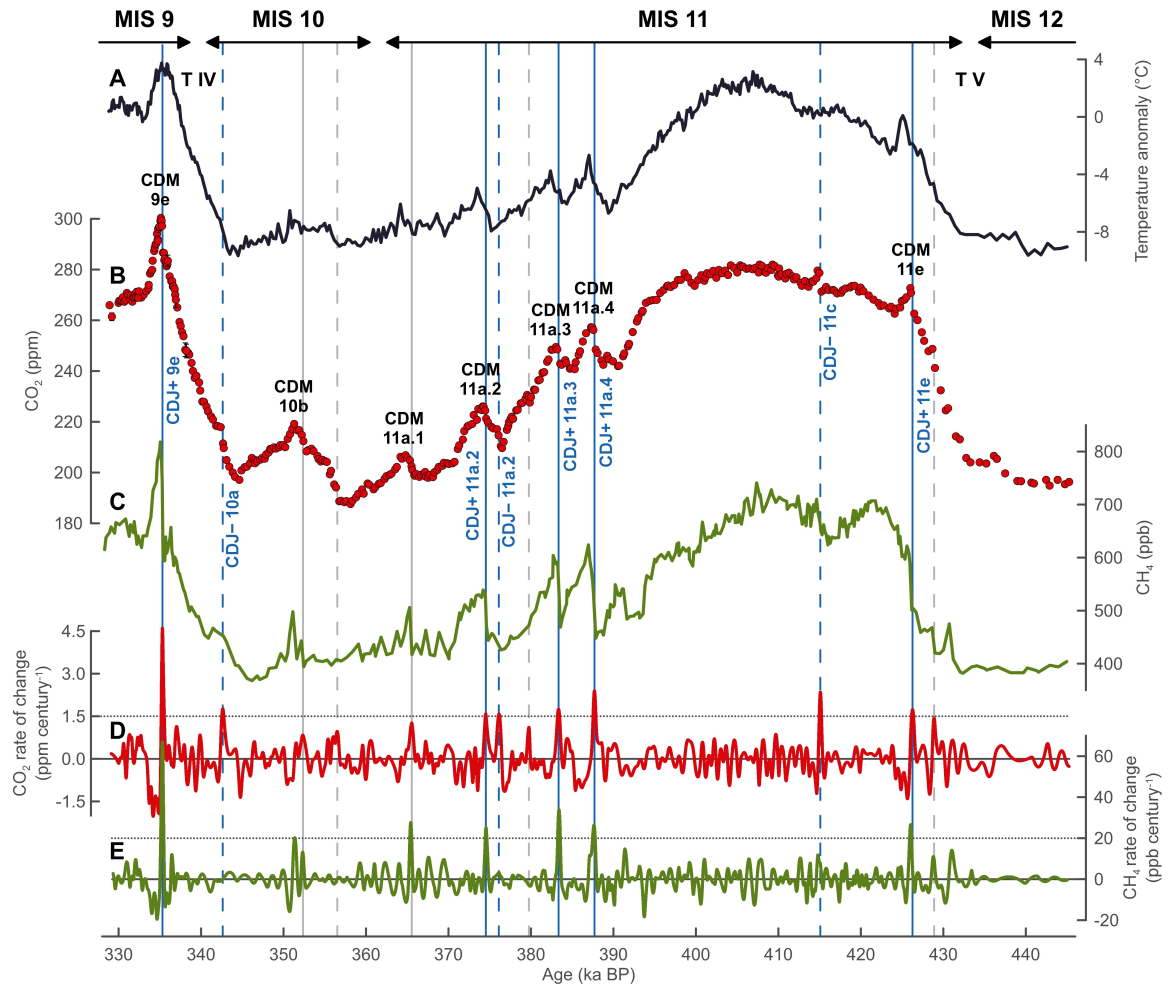


Fig. 1. High-resolution CO₂ and improved CH₄ records compared to Antarctic

temperature during MIS 9e - 12a. (A) Antarctic temperature anomalies (10). (B) CO₂

record (this study). (C) CH₄ compilation [this study, (20)]. (D) Rate of change of CO₂ in the

ice core record derived from (B) (20). (E) Rate of change of CH₄ in the ice core record

derived from (C) (20). All data are based on measurements of EDC ice core samples and are

plotted on the AICC2012 age scale (34). Identified CDM and CDJ are labelled according to

the MIS assignment by Ref. (19). Distinct CDJ in the CO₂ record are highlighted by blue

vertical lines, positioned at the peaks in (D) exceeding a threshold value of 1.5 ppm per

century (20). CDJ+ (solid lines) coincide with major CH₄ rises greater 50 ppb at growth rates

greater than 20 ppb per century (E), while CDJ- (dashed lines) do not. Further potential

events with positive rates below 1.5 ppm per century (D) are not labelled but marked by grey

vertical lines.

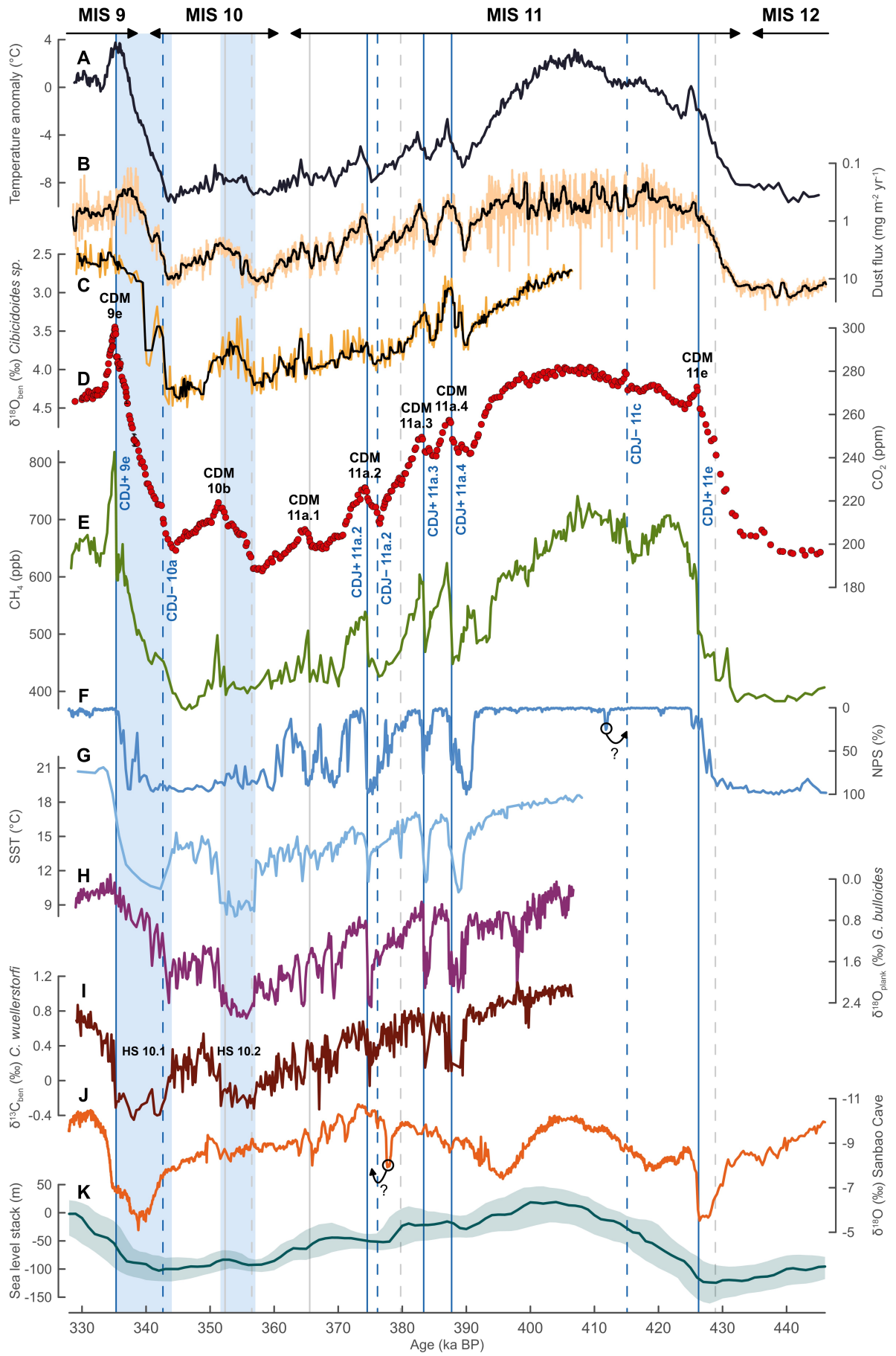


Fig. 2. Comparison of high-resolution CO₂ and improved CH₄ records with marine sediment and speleothem data covering MIS 9e - 12a.

(A) EDC temperature anomalies (10). (B) EDC dust flux (27), including a ~500 year running median. (C) Benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ *C. wuellerstorfi* from IODP Site U1385 on the Iberian Margin (this study), including a ~500 year running median. (D) EDC CO₂ record (this study). (E) EDC CH₄ compilation [this study, (20)]. (F) Relative proportion of the polar planktic foraminifera *N. pachyderma* from ODP Site 983 (38). (G) U^{k}_{37} based SST from IODP Site U1385 (26). (H) Planktic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ *G. bulloides* from IODP Site U1385 (this study). (I) Benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *C. wuellerstorfi* from IODP Site U1385 (this study). (J) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ Sanbao Cave record in Hubei, China (35). (K) Global sea level stack (probability maximum) including 95% probability intervals (37). All records are given on the AICC2012 age scale (34) or are transferred to AICC2012 (20), with the exception of (J) and (K). Arrows in (F) and (J) highlight potential age scale inconsistencies. Labelling and vertical lines are identical to Fig. 1. Blue bands indicate HS 10.1 and HS 10.2 (see text for details).

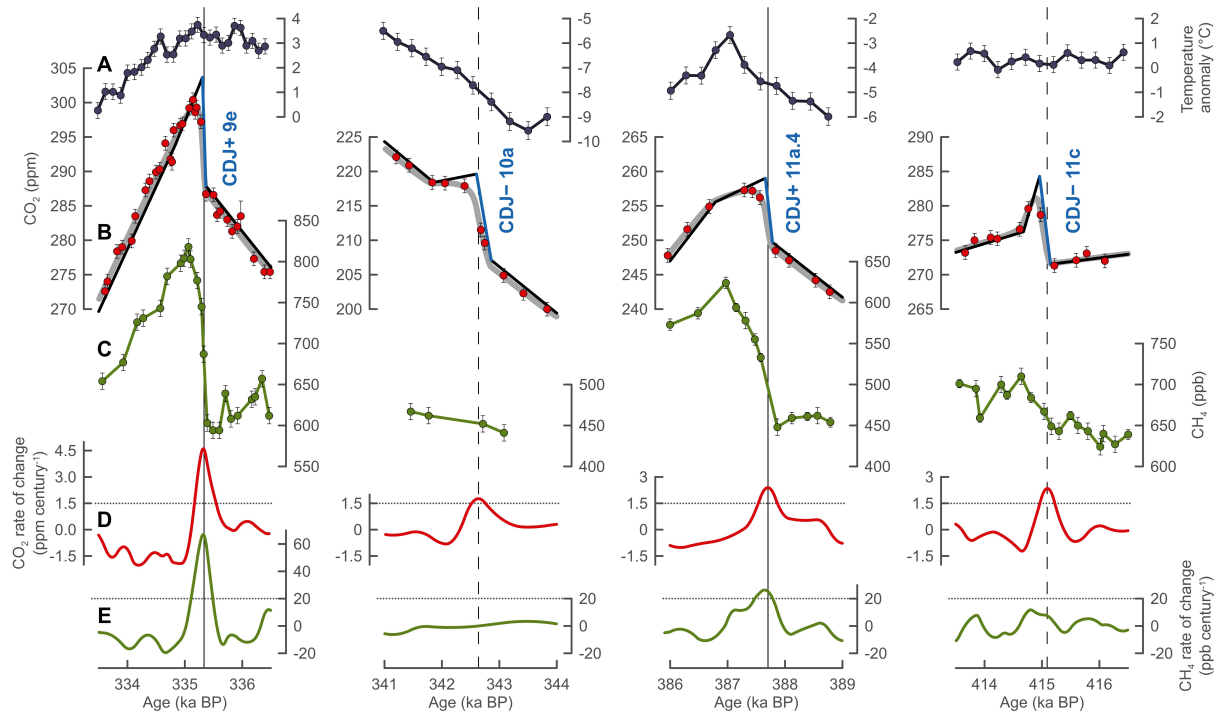


Fig. 3. Detailed view of the two varieties of CDJ. (A-E) Identical to Fig. 1. The black linear segments in (B) indicate first-order approximations of the atmospheric CO₂ evolution. The blue segment highlights the actual CDJ event. These approximations for the atmospheric trajectories are optimized, so that the CO₂ curve after smoothing by the bubble enclosure process (grey lines) fit the ice core data (red dots) best. The firm smoothing is realized applying new gas enclosure characteristics for the EDC ice core (20). See Table S1 for details. All remaining CDJ are shown in Fig. S1.

Supplementary Materials for

Abrupt CO₂ Release to the Atmosphere under Glacial and Early Interglacial Climate Conditions

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This PDF file includes:

Materials and Methods

Supplementary Text

Figs. S1 to S9

Table S1

Captions for Data S1 to S2

References (55-86)

Other Supplementary Materials for this manuscript includes the following:

Data S1 to S2

Materials and Methods

EPICA Dome C CO₂ measurements

The majority of CO₂ measurements on the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core were performed at Climate and Environmental Physics (CEP), Physics Institute, University of Bern, Switzerland. The data were measured using the recently developed dry-extraction system, the Centrifugal Ice Microtome (CIM), described in detail in Ref. (55). With this friction-free extraction system, we performed a total of 1161 single measurements with a polar ice sample throughput of up to 24 samples per day. On average, individual ice samples weighed 7.3 ± 0.8 g after approximately 5 mm was trimmed from the outer surfaces. Additionally, we performed 463 control measurements throughout the measurement campaign to correct offsets related to the extraction process and to monitor potential system drifts. These measurements involve expanding a standard gas over a gas-free ice sample that is treated identically to a polar ice sample, and is measured against the same calibration gas (55). Typically, we made one control measurement for every four polar ice samples amounting to five to seven control measurements per measurement day. Over the course of the measurement campaign, which was approximately one year, the mean control measurement was 2.31 ± 1.21 ppm higher than the calibrated value of the reference gas that has been mixed over the gas-free ice. All polar ice measurements have been corrected using the daily average of these control measurements.

All individual depth levels were measured at least in duplicate. For approximately 50% of all samples, a set of vertically contiguous (i.e., directly neighboring) replicate measurements were performed on a different day, leading to a mean sample replication of three samples per final data point. All CIM measurements were grouped (i.e., averaged) to depth sections of usually ~ 5 cm (in rare cases up to 12 cm) in the vertical direction, thereby integrating the signal on average over 23 ± 7 years until 425 ka BP (thousand years before present, where present is defined as 1950 CE), and 60 ± 16 years beyond. In total we provide 387 new data points between 330 and 450 ka BP [i.e., Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 9e - 12a]. The pooled standard deviation for all replicate samples is 1.0 ppm, which is used as an error estimate for all CIM measurements. All CIM CO₂ measurements are referenced to the WMOX2007 mole fraction scale (56) using four different primary dry air standards calibrated at the NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory, Boulder, USA ranging between 192.44 ± 0.11 and 363.08 ± 0.06 ppm CO₂.

An additional 33 measurements between 297 and 353 ka BP were performed at the Institut des Géosciences de l'Environnement (IGE), Univ. Grenoble Alpes, France using the Ball Mill extraction technique described in detail in Ref. (57). Here, larger samples of 42.5 ± 2.5 g were used. The extracted air of each sample is analyzed five consecutive times (i.e., in total five sample injections into the gas analyzer). The precision of the system amounts to an average of ~ 1.7 ppm and is based on the standard deviation of these five injections, thus does not include the additional extraction variability of replicate samples. The CO₂ measurements are calibrated using a working standard (233.7 ± 0.4 ppm CO₂, synthetic dry air provided by Air Liquide, Grenoble, France), which has been referenced to two primary dry air standards with calibrated CO₂ mole fractions of 238.34 ± 0.04 ppm and 260.26 ± 0.20 ppm, provided by the NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory, Boulder, USA and the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO), Australia, respectively.

Gas ages for all CO₂ measurements produced by the CIM and Ball Mill were calculated using the average depth levels of each depth section using the AICC2012 chronology (34). We do not find any significant inter-laboratory offset; however, this comparison is only based on 11 directly neighboring samples. Note that due to their lower temporal resolution, the Ball Mill data younger than 328 ka BP are not shown in Fig. 1B and Fig. 2D. All CO₂ data are available in Data S1.

EPICA Dome C CH₄ measurements and compilation of CH₄ data

The existing CH₄ record for MIS 9e - 12a consists of measurements from two experimental setups, one employed at CEP, the other at IGE (21). Here we improve the temporal resolution using the same experimental setups. A total of 92 unpublished CH₄ data points had been produced in 2008 using the CEP setup, within the scope of the work by Ref. (58), but remained unpublished. The method used for these samples is identical to that described in Ref. (21). Secondly, we performed 41 new measurements at IGE at time periods of abrupt climate change connected to Carbon Dioxide Jump (CDJ) events in the CO₂ record. In previous publications, an offset correction between the IGE and CEP setups involved adding 6 ppb to the IGE data (59). This correction is obsolete for the new IGE data as an improved contamination correction has been introduced, removing the interlaboratory offset. Lastly, we complement the above described data with 54 published data points by Ref. (60), that have been measured at CEP; however, with an independent setup. A visual overview of this data can be found in Fig. S2. All CH₄ data are available in Data S1.

The majority of the 92 CH₄ data points produced by Ref. (58) are vertically contiguous (i.e., directly neighboring) to those published by Ref. (21) and should be considered replicate measurements. In our CH₄ compilation (Data S1), we combine two individual measurements to one data point in cases where the vertical depth difference between two neighboring CH₄ data points is smaller than 10 cm (typically less than 5 cm). This entails a CH₄ signal integration over 28±14 years on average, which is less than the smoothing resulting from the firn column (see below). The uncertainty of these averaged values is calculated using Gaussian error propagation. We use this CH₄ compilation in all figures showing EDC CH₄ data in MIS 9e - 12a, with the exception of Fig. S2B where the full data set is shown.

Ocean sediment data from IODP Site U1385 (Shackleton site, Iberian Margin)

Isotope data from the International Ocean Discovery Program (IODP) Site U1385 between 329 and 407 ka BP were measured on the planktic foraminifera *G. bulloides* (Fig. 2H) and epibenthic species belonging to the genus *Cibicidoides* (Fig. 2C, 2I). A condensed section or hiatus in the sedimentation rate in older sections covering MIS 11c - e prevents us from reconstructing hydrographic changes on centennial time scales (61). Most analyses were made on *C. wuellerstorfi* but when this species was rare, other species were used for benthic δ¹⁸O (i.e., *C. mundulus*, *C. robertsonianus*) (Fig. 2C). Only *C. wuellerstorfi* data are presented for benthic δ¹³C (Fig. 2I) because other species may live infaunally and therefore do not record the δ¹³C signal of the bottom water. All measurements were made at the Godwin Laboratory of Palaeoclimate Research, University of Cambridge, UK using the same methods as those described in Ref. (61). All marine sediment data are available in Data S2.

Piston cores from the Iberian Margin off Portugal contain clear signals of millennial variability of both surface and deep-water masses (28, 62). Variations in planktic δ¹⁸O and alkenone saturation index (U^k₃₇) reflect the temperature variations in Greenland over the last glacial cycle (63). In the same sediment core, the benthic δ¹⁸O signal resembles the δD record in Antarctica ice cores (28, 62) capturing each of the Antarctic Isotope Maxima events during the last glaciation (10). Millennial variations in benthic δ¹⁸O are affected by changes in deep-water temperature and water mass hydrography, and are assumed to be a signal that originates from the Southern Ocean (SO) (28, 64). We synchronized IODP Site U1385 with EDC on the AICC2012 age scale (34) by correlating the benthic δ¹⁸O and δD records (Fig. 2C, 2A) (cf. 65, 66). This correlation results in agreement between the planktic δ¹⁸O record and the CH₄ compilation (Fig. 2H, 2E). The observed phasing of the planktic and benthic δ¹⁸O signals at IODP Site U1385 is consistent with the relative changes in temperature between Antarctica and Greenland deduced from CH₄ synchronization.

Gravitational correction of the CO₂ and CH₄ data

Before small samples of the atmosphere become trapped in the ice, the air first needs to diffuse through the firn column of a polar ice sheet. Under the influence of the Earth's gravitational field heavier molecules become enriched compared to the air that entered the firn at the surface of the ice sheet (67), while lighter molecules become depleted. This process is commonly referred to as gravitational settling. The magnitude of this effect is dependent on the thickness of the diffusive firn column and therefore varies with changing temperature and accumulation rates. Atmospheric $\delta^{15}\text{N}_2$ (the isotopic signal of N_2) can be safely assumed to be constant over orbital time scales, which makes the $\delta^{15}\text{N}_2$ of the air trapped in the ice an ideal tracer of gravitational effects and can also be used to correct for other gas species that are subject to change in the atmosphere, such as CO_2 and CH_4 (68, 69).

With approximately 44 g mol^{-1} CO_2 is heavier than the mean molar weight of air, which amounts to 29 g mol^{-1} causing slightly higher CO_2 mole fractions where bubble formation takes place. With 16 g mol^{-1} CH_4 is lighter than air leading to slightly lower CH_4 mole fractions at bubble close off. While the correction of such effects is vital for reconstructions of stable isotopic ratios (e.g., 29), it was not systematically corrected for in previous studies solely focusing on mole fractions, as the effect is only on the order of 1% of the measured value.

Although this systematic bias is well known, many authors refrained from applying this correction, possibly due to the lack of $\delta^{15}\text{N}_2$ data (or similar proxies) or the generally small magnitude of the correction which often was smaller than the measurement precision. However, with steadily increasing technical capabilities and a growing body of $\delta^{15}\text{N}_2$ data the above raised arguments are obsolete. In particular, with respect to the accumulating evidence for systematic non-trivial offsets between different CO_2 reconstructions this correction is necessary (4, 70).

To estimate the gravitational correction for EDC data, we use $\delta^{15}\text{N}_2$ measurements published by Ref. (71). For each of our data points, we find the corresponding EDC δD value by linear approximation of the δD data set published by Ref. (10). Subsequently, we make use of the linear relationship between δD and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_2$ to approximate our $\delta^{15}\text{N}_2$ as previously proposed by Ref. (29). The Vostok data shown in Fig. S2A are corrected using a linear regression between δD (10) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_2$ (72). The additional error introduced by this correction is negligible compared to the experimental errors of the CO_2 mole fractions. The gravitational correction for our measurements involves reducing the uncorrected CO_2 data by 1.1 to 2.5 ppm and adding between 2 and 6 ppb to the CH_4 data.

Note that all CO_2 and CH_4 values shown in Fig. 1, 2, 3, S1, and S2 are corrected for gravitational effects. In order to provide CO_2 mole fractions that are consistent with previously published CO_2 compilations where gravitational corrections have not been consistently applied (73, 74), we also provide uncorrected CO_2 and CH_4 data in Data S1.

Calculating the rate of CO₂ and CH₄ change in the ice core record

To calculate rate of change in CO_2 (Fig. 1D) on centennial to millennial timescales, superimposed orbital trends have to be removed from the data set first (cf. 66). This is achieved by subtracting a smoothing spline from the data set (75), with cut-off periods (i.e., degrees of smoothing) ranging from 6 to 14 ka (Fig. S3A). Subsequently, we use a second set of smoothing splines with cut-off periods ranging from 0.4 to 1.2 ka to interpolate these detrended data to obtain annually resolved equidistant records (Fig. S3B - F). These interpolated data are used to calculate central finite differences to approximate the first derivative of these CO_2 records (Fig. S3G - K). For the removal of orbital scale variability, we choose the 10 ka cut-off period smoothing function, which is a compromise between preserving sub-millennial scale variability while removing the orbital-scale glacial-interglacial trends. The interpolation of the detrended data is done using a 0.8 ka cut-off period smoothing function, which is a compromise

between the amplification of high-frequency noise and loss of signal amplitude of potential CDJ events (cf. 66). The same methodology is used for calculating the rate of change in the CH₄ record (Fig. 1E).

5 Estimating realistic Gas Age Distributions for the EDC ice core

10 The air trapped at a particular depth of the ice core is a mixture over decades to millennia depending on accumulation rate and site temperature (76). The atmospheric air diffuses through the firn column and mixes with older air masses before it gets trapped in the ice. Most importantly, bubbles in the firn-ice transition (lock-in) zone close off slowly and not at the same time which leads to an attenuation or low-pass filtering of the atmospheric signal (77, 78). This process scales with the time it takes a single layer of firn/ice to pass through the lock-in zone. The age difference (delta age) between the ice and the mean age of the gas trapped within the ice is a first-order indicator of average accumulation rates over the entire firn column. With decreasing accumulation these effects become more pronounced, leading to a particularly strong signal attenuation and multi-millennial delta ages in the Vostok and EDC ice core that are from low-accumulation sites located on the Antarctic Plateau. The age of the enclosed air after this firn column-induced smoothing is described by a probability density function. It is often referred to as the Gas Age Distribution (GAD), and its width is different for each depth section depending on past accumulation rates and temperatures. Figure S4 shows three typical shapes (blue lines) of commonly used GAD for the EDC ice core (77, 79), two of which are representative for warm interglacial (pre-industrial) and cold glacial conditions (Last Glacial Maximum), respectively.

25 Recently, Ref. (80) described an empirical method to estimate GAD for the Vostok ice core based on the direct comparison between continuously measured CH₄ records. This method involves finding a generic GAD that convolves the high-frequency CH₄ signal captured by the West Antarctic Ice Sheet Divide (WD) ice core (18) at points of fast CH₄ transitions (in their case DO 17 at ~59 ka BP) to match the smoothed version of the identical atmospheric signal in the Vostok ice core. The assumption is made that the continuous WD CH₄ record provides an insignificantly smoothed version of the atmospheric signal (6). Ref. (80) raised concern that commonly used modelled estimates of GAD for low-accumulation sites during glacial conditions may be systematically too wide. Consequently, such GAD would lead to a systematic overestimation of the firn column-induced smoothing effect. However, it is yet unknown whether this finding is unique to the Vostok ice core under glacial conditions or whether interglacial GAD estimates are affected in a similar way. Moreover, it is not clear – although likely – whether this applies to other ice cores with similar temperature and accumulation regimes, such as the EDC ice core.

40 Indirect evidence that commonly used GAD for the EDC ice core (77) are too wide comes from a study by Ref. (79). They estimated the atmospheric CO₂ rise rates for the CDJ+ found at the onset of the Bølling-Allerød (BA) period (9) using a GAD similar to that predicted by Ref. (77) (Fig. S4). By comparison with the WD CO₂ record, their estimations were later shown to be clear overestimations of the atmospheric rise rates (6), which can be explained by the usage of a too wide GAD in the study by Ref. (79).

45 Following the techniques described in Ref. (80), it is possible to test the commonly used modelled GAD (77) in the case of the EDC ice core. The WD CH₄ record is available at decadal resolution for the period between 10 and 67 ka BP (18), where only discretely measured data are available from the EDC ice core (21). In comparison to a continuous record, this record is much lower in resolution (approx. 160 years between 10 and 67 ka BP on average) and suffers from staggered layering artefacts (centimeter-scale age scale reversions) that cannot be unambiguously identified in a non-continuous record (80, 81). Furthermore, all measurements

over MIS 3 predating ~30 ka BP are located in the brittle ice zone of the EDC ice core, which is prone to sample contamination by drilling fluid and modern air.

Nevertheless, the discrete EDC CH₄ data are sufficient to construct a first-order approximation of a more realistic GAD. Here, we focus on the onsets of three key periods that are associated with fast atmospheric CH₄ rises, namely the Preboreal (PB), Younger Dryas (YD), and the BA. In addition, we also include Dansgaard-Oeschger (DO) events 6 - 8 between 33 and 39 ka BP (Fig. S5) associated with a major CH₄ rise for each DO event. Together with the data available for the last deglaciation (10 to 22 ka BP), this interval has the highest temporal resolution (~100 years) in the 10 to 67 ka BP interval where continuous WD CH₄ data are available (18). We assume that the GAD can be approximated by log-normal distributions (79, 80) and that a single GAD is representative for the enclosure characteristics for these events. Log-normal functions are described by two free parameters: the mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ) of the logarithm. For the sake of simplicity, we fix the standard deviation at a value of $\sigma=1.5$ (80) and vary only the mean to change the shape of our GAD. We also report the arithmetic mean of the log-normal function [referred to as expected mean in Ref. (79)] representing the width of the GAD, given in years (Table S1). The arithmetic mean of a log-normal distribution is given by

$$GAD_{mean} = e^{\mu+0.5\sigma^2}. \quad \text{Eq. S1}$$

We use the *fminbnd* function of the ‘neldermead’ package in R (82) to optimize the EDC bubble enclosure characteristics by smoothing the WD CH₄ data (18) to fit the EDC data (21). The optimal GAD is determined by minimizing the root-mean-square error (RMSE) between the convoluted WD CH₄ signal and the discrete EDC data, spanning a 2 ka time window centered around the inflection point of the abrupt CH₄ rise in the EDC record (Fig. S5). We allow for linear adjustments of the discrete EDC data relative to the continuous WD CH₄ data to compensate for the temporal shift induced by the convolution of the WD CH₄ signal (79), as well as general age scale and standardization inconsistencies. To acknowledge the dependency on the absolute value of individual data points we apply a Monte Carlo type approach and vary the discrete CH₄ data within their uncertainty boundaries (± 10 ppb) in a random manner. We use the average of 500 iterations to determine the most suitable GAD width for each event. In this context the choice of age scale is critical, as it has a strong influence on the duration of an event. Therefore, we use the age scale as published by Ref. (83) that has been specifically optimized for the deglaciation period and includes the PB, YD, and BA events. Note that for all other purposes the AICC2012 age scale is used (34). For the glacial GAD – as represented by DO 6 - 8 between 33 and 39 ka BP – a longer time window is chosen for the optimization to compensate for the influence of age scale inconsistencies between the AICC2012 (discrete EDC CH₄ data) (34) and the WD2014 age scale (continuous WD CH₄ data) (84) and minimize the influence of potential staggered layering artefacts (18, 80) in this section (Fig. S5).

The smoothed versions of the WD CH₄ record match the discrete EDC CH₄ data well for all three events during the deglaciation (Fig. S5). In the case of DO 6 - 8 the size of each event in the discrete EDC data is well captured by the smoothed version of the WD CH₄ record, despite obvious age scales issues, indicated by relative shifts between the discrete and smoothed continuous records. The results of this optimization (Fig. S4, S5) point towards a substantial overestimation of the smoothing produced by commonly used modelled EDC enclosure characteristics (77), in line with Ref. (80).

Since these four time periods are only representative for a given firm column condition, we strive to find a simple model that allows to estimate the GAD width (Eq. S1) for other firm column conditions at Dome C, as approximated by the delta age. Therefore, we plot the arithmetic means of the GAD found for the PB, YD, BA, and DO 6 - 8 against their respective

delta age to the nearest 0.1 ka (Fig. S6). Delta ages are derived from the AICC2012 age scale (34) by subtracting the assigned gas age from the respective ice age for each depth interval. We use a 2 ka time window centered around the inflection point of each event to find the corresponding average delta age given on the ice age scale. Subsequently, a linear regression model incorporating the uncertainties for both variables (85) is utilized to obtain the following empirical relationship:

$$GAD_{mean} = 0.048(\pm 0.025) \times \text{delta age (in years)} + 17(\pm 67) \text{ years.} \quad \text{Eq. S2}$$

This linear function serves as a first-order approximation of more realistic GAD for the EDC ice core, assuming a linear scaling of the GAD width with delta age.

We stress that these GAD estimates are limited in several aspects. Most importantly, these estimates are highly dependent on the used age scale, as the duration of fast CH₄ transitions and the delta age estimate may vary considerably. Also the choice of the GAD template (here a log-normal distribution) might have an influence on the quantitative outcome of this analysis. However, the good correspondence of the WD record smoothed by a log-normal GAD with the measured EDC record strongly suggests that such an influence does not affect the overall conclusions of our study. We recommend that this case study is repeated when higher resolution data from the EDC ice core for selected time periods of fast atmospheric CH₄ change and improved empiric GAD information become available.

Inversed convolution of Carbon Dioxide Jumps

The rates of CO₂ increase archived in the ice core record during CDJ can only be interpreted as lower limits for the unfiltered atmospheric rates. Independent of the original atmospheric trajectory, the growth rates in atmospheric CO₂ must have been higher than recorded in the smoothed ice core record. It is therefore important to consider the air enclosure characteristics of the EDC ice core when attempting to deconvolute the ice core signal and estimate potential atmospheric rates.

Using our GAD estimates for the EDC ice core derived as described above, we provide first-order estimates of atmospheric duration, magnitude of the CO₂ rise, and growth rates for each event identified here. To achieve this, we assume that the centennial to millennial-scale atmospheric trajectories can be approximated by a simple set of linear functions. Our atmospheric rates are estimated following these steps: (i) Find the delta age for the CDJ using the AICC2012 age scale (34); (ii) determine a suitable GAD using the linear relationship described above; (iii) guess a simple atmospheric trajectory, smooth this guess using the GAD, calculate RMSE between smoothed guess and the actual CO₂ data, and optimize this atmospheric guess using the Nelder-Mead algorithm; (iv) repeat step (iii) 200 times with randomly modified CO₂ record within the measurement uncertainty (± 1 ppm); (v) calculate the median values for the duration, magnitude of the CO₂ rise, and growth rates for each CDJ of these 200 iterations, as indicated by blue segments in Fig. 3B and S1B. The results are shown in Table S1, where the interquartile range of these 200 iterations is used as an error estimate.

Supplementary Text

Comparison of the new CO₂ data set with previously published records

Our new EDC CO₂ data overall agree with the published Vostok 5G measurements [Fig. S2A, (1)]. Differences in the two records can be explained by age scale uncertainties beyond 355 ka BP due to the lack of stratigraphic tie points in the Vostok record, leading to inconsistencies of up to ~10 ka (33, 34). During MIS 11c - e (~390 to 430 ka BP) our data agree well with the data published by Ref. (2) measured on the same ice core. No difference in average mole fractions is found; however, the precision of our new data has been increased

substantially. Towards MIS 12a our new data develops an offset with respect to the data published by Ref. (2). Based on the time interval between 438 and 446 ka BP, where CO₂ appears to be stable at a level of 196.2±0.7 ppm (CIM measurements), we determine an offset of 3.5±1.4 ppm between the record published by Ref. (2) and our new CIM data, with our data showing lower mole fractions. Such offsets between different Antarctic records are well known, but still lack a coherent explanation and responsible mechanisms are hard to distinguish from each other (4, 70). However, the majority of mechanisms cause the CO₂ mole fractions to increase over time, for example due to preferential loss of oxygen during storage of the samples (4, 70). The only known effects that lead to lower CO₂ measurements are related to the combination of measurement setups with low extraction efficiencies and ice from either the so called Bubble to Clathrate Transition Zone (57, 86) or from depth sections in EDC deeper than 3000 m (73). Both mechanisms can be excluded here. Instead, we speculate that the offset is an issue related to standardization methods. While the new data were calibrated using standard reference gases ranging between 192 and 363 ppm (see Materials and Methods), Ref. (2) used air standards only ranging between 252 and 342 ppm (cf. 9), i.e., the lowest concentration standard was still about 50 ppm higher than the lowest measured ice core mole fraction during MIS 12a. In any case, this small glacial offset between the new and older EDC data from this time interval does not affect any of the conclusions drawn in our study.

Estimating the detection limit for CDJ during MIS 9e - 12a in the EPICA Dome C ice core

The absence of CDJ (according to our CDJ definition in the main text) between MIS 10a and late MIS 11a (~345 to 370 ka BP) as well as between early MIS 11e and MIS 12a (~430 to 445 ka BP) raises the question of whether no CDJ events occurred during these periods or if we are only unable to detect them.

It is possible that we do not detect potential CDJ that are smaller than a certain threshold due to the firn column-induced attenuation of the original atmospheric signal. This smoothing effect is strongest for the glacial maxima when temperatures and accumulation rates are at their lowest. Besides the amount of firn smoothing, the detection limit for CDJ in our CO₂ record also depends on the original atmospheric rates and durations of carbon releases to the atmosphere.

We simulate the resulting rate of change of CO₂ as it would be recorded in the EDC ice core (cf. Fig. 1D, 3D, S1D) by smoothing generic CDJ (i.e., simple step functions) and subsequently calculating their rate of change using the same methodology as described above (Fig. S7). We use the maximum firn column-induced smoothing in the MIS 9e - 12a interval, which is found for the glacial maximum during MIS 12a when the delta age reaches its maximum at 4.5±0.3 ka (34) resulting in an arithmetic mean of 233±132 years (Eq. S2) for the GAD used here.

Figure S8 demonstrates the influence of both the simulated magnitude of the CO₂ rise (rows) and event duration (columns) in the atmosphere on the estimated growth rates of a CDJ event as it would be recorded by ice core record, whereas Fig. S7 visualizes the impact of different magnitudes of the CO₂ rise at a fixed CDJ duration (Fig. S7A - C) and *vice versa* (Fig. S7D - F).

Other factors – such as sample availability – may also influence the theoretical detection limit, which can lead to the overestimation of the estimated CDJ duration and underestimation of the determined atmospheric CO₂ rise and growth rate. This may be the case for CDJ– 11a.2, CDJ+ 11a.3, and CDJ+ 11e (Fig. S1). In case of CDJ+ 11e – where we exploited all available ice in this depth section – the CH₄ data suggest a later onset of the CDJ by ~100 years (i.e., a shorter duration) than we estimate based on the inverse convolution of the ice core signal (Table S1). The low ice availability is a result of earlier sampling (e.g., 2, 21, 60) and generally lower ice availability due to low-accumulation rates during the MIS 12a - 11e transition

(Termination V) in the EDC ice core. While the majority of our CO₂ dataset is only marginally affected by limited sample availability, we cannot exclude that potential CDJ with CO₂ rises greater than ~5 ppm remain undetected during the MIS 12a - 11e transition.

In summary, based on the above theoretical considerations we should be able to detect CDJ with an atmospheric CO₂ rises greater than ~5 ppm and a duration of less than ~250 years throughout MIS 9e - 11e, i.e., the majority of our record. The finding is supported by the identification of the third largest CDJ of all eight CDJ identified in this study (CDJ- 10.a; Table S1), which takes place among the coldest conditions during the entire MIS 10a - 11a glacial period. Consequently, CDJ- 10a is associated with more pronounced firn column-induced smoothing of the atmospheric signal as compared to the preceding MIS 10b to late MIS 11a interval (i.e., ~345 to 370 ka BP) where no CDJ are found (Fig. 1), confirming that we do capture major CDJ even when the firn column-induced signal attenuation is relatively strong.

We speculate that CDJ+ become less likely with decreasing temperatures during a glacial period based on previously published lower precision CO₂ data. We assume that at least four CDJ+ occurred during MIS 5a - c associated with DO 19 - 21 and DO 24 based on apparent jumps in the CO₂ trajectories at the time of sharp CH₄ rises (4, 8), but no robust conclusion can be drawn from these data. With advancing glacial conditions (i.e., decreasing temperatures and lower sea levels) towards MIS 3 the climatic conditions seem to no longer permit the formation of major CDJ+ (4, 5, 8). A single CDJ- associated with Heinrich Stadial (HS) 4 (12, 13) is the only CDJ identified for the MIS 3 interval so far, with no indications of CDJ+ associated with major Carbon Dioxide Maxima (CDM) 4, 8, 12, 14, and 17 (numbering refers to the associated DO event) (4, 8). With the onset of the last deglaciation connected with rising temperatures and sea level, both types of CDJ seem to become more likely again (6, 30). It is thus conceivable that the climatic boundary conditions found during the early glacial growth phases (e.g., MIS 11a, MIS 5a - c) are favorable conditions for the formation of CDJ+ events, that seem to cease towards the coldest conditions reached during the glacial maxima of each glacial cycle (e.g., MIS 10, MIS 3). CDJ-, on the other hand, seem to depend on specific conditions potentially triggered by major freshwater forcing.

CH₄ excursions during Heinrich Stadials in the EPICA Dome C ice core

By comparison with the CDJ- found for HS1 (6) and HS4 (12), we would expect to find simultaneous short-lived overshoots in the CH₄ record, with amplitudes of less than ~50 ppb (18). However, the CDJ- identified here (i.e., CDJ- 10a, 11a2, 11c) show no indication of such signals in the CH₄ data.

We argue that such events cannot be resolved with currently available discrete EDC CH₄ data. This statement is based on considerations for the known events for HS1 and HS4 (18), that are smoothed using our linear model for delta age dependent GAD (Fig. S9). In both cases the short-lived CH₄ overshoot is attenuated to a level that cannot be detected in the EDC ice core, at least by using the discrete CH₄ data from Ref. (21), due to insufficient temporal resolution and measurement precision. This is in line with Ref. (80), who showed that comparable sub-centennial-scale CH₄ variations around DO 17 in the WD CH₄ record are smoothed out in the Vostok ice core.

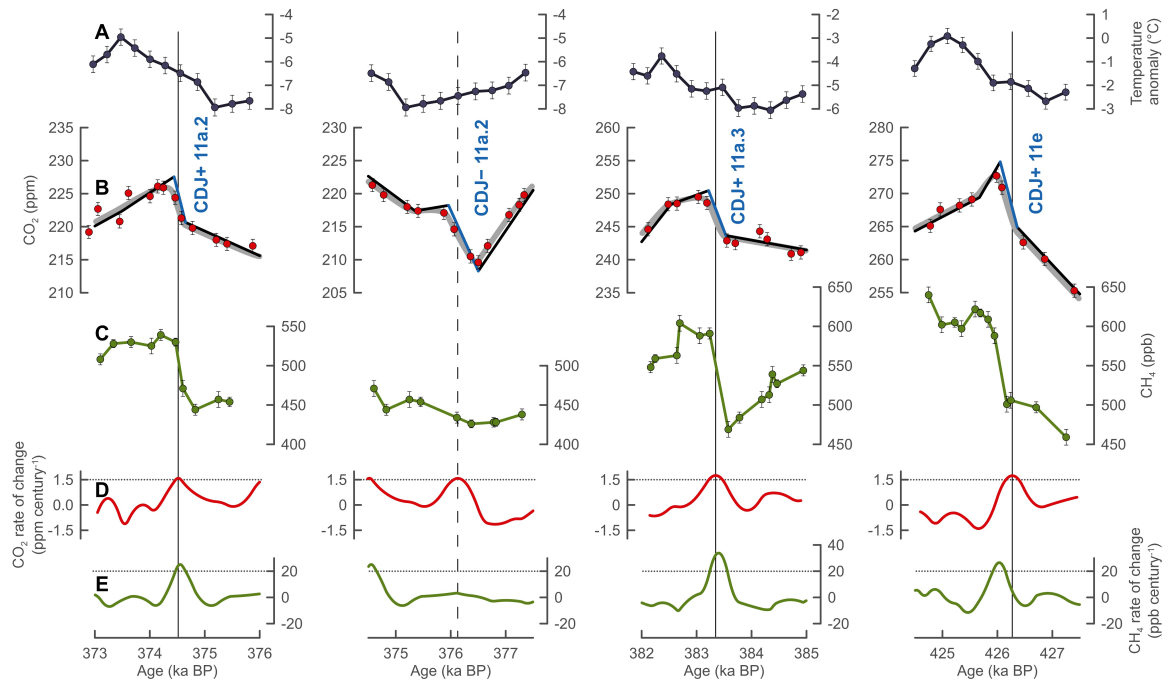


Fig. S1. Extension of Fig. 3. Detailed view of the two varieties of Carbon Dioxide Jumps (CDJ) in the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core. (A) EDC temperature anomalies (11) (B) CO₂ data (this study). (C) CH₄ compilation (this study, see materials and methods for details). (D) Rate of change in CO₂ (cf. Fig. 1D). (E) Rate of change in CH₄ (cf. Fig. 1E). CDJ+ are coeval with DO-like CH₄ rises greater 50 ppb at growth rates greater than 20 ppb per century (D), whereas CDJ- are not. The black linear segments in (B) indicate first-order approximations of the atmospheric CO₂ evolution. The blue segment highlights the actual CDJ event. These approximations for the atmospheric trajectories are optimized so that the CO₂ curve after smoothing by the bubble enclosure process (grey lines) fit the ice core data (red points) best. The firm smoothing is realized by applying new gas enclosure characteristics for the EDC ice core (Fig. S4 - S6). See Table S1 for details. All remaining CDJ are shown in Fig. 3.

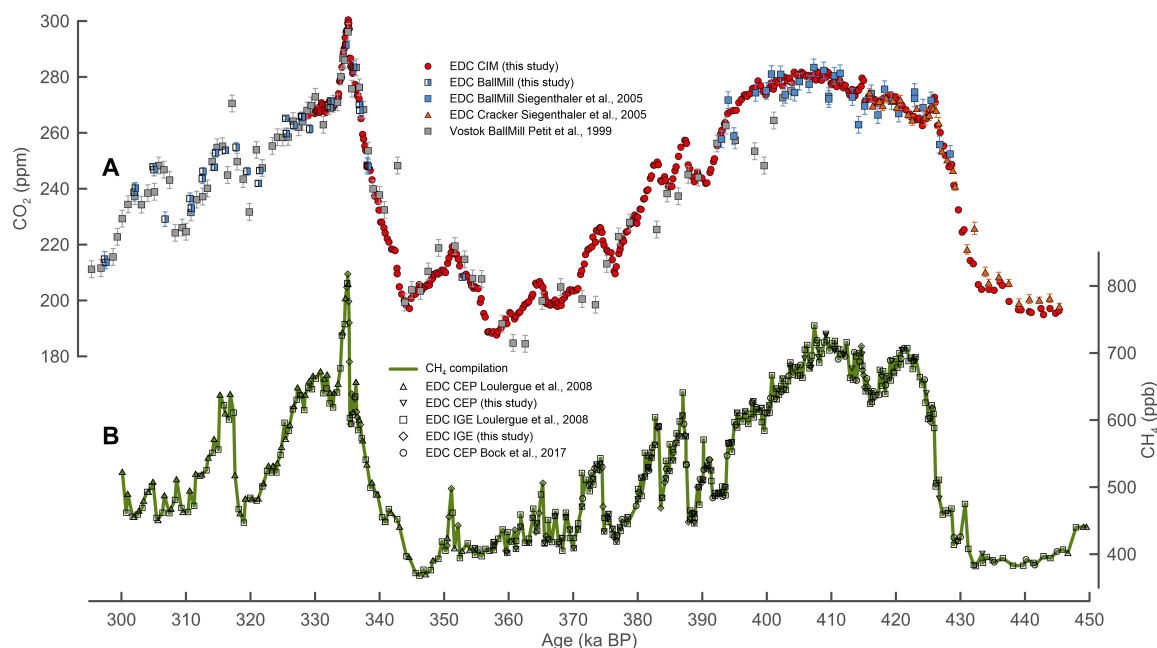


Fig. S2. Comparison between our CO₂ and CH₄ data from the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core with previously published data. (A) The new EDC CO₂ record overlaps with CO₂ data from the Vostok 5G ice core during 300 to 400 ka BP (1) and with previously published data from EDC during 390 to 450 ka BP (2). Note that the CO₂ data sets shown here were measured using three different dry extraction devices, namely the Centrifugal Ice Microtome (CIM) (55) and the Needle Cracker (2) employed at Climate and Environmental Physics (CEP), Physics Institute, University of Bern and the Ball Mill (1, 2) employed at the Institut des Géosciences de l'Environnement (IGE), Univ. Grenoble Alpes. **(B)** EDC CH₄ data, mainly based on data published by Ref. (19), complemented with new measurements (this study) and previously published data (60), all measured at CEP and IGE. Error bars for CH₄ are omitted for clarity. See legends for details.

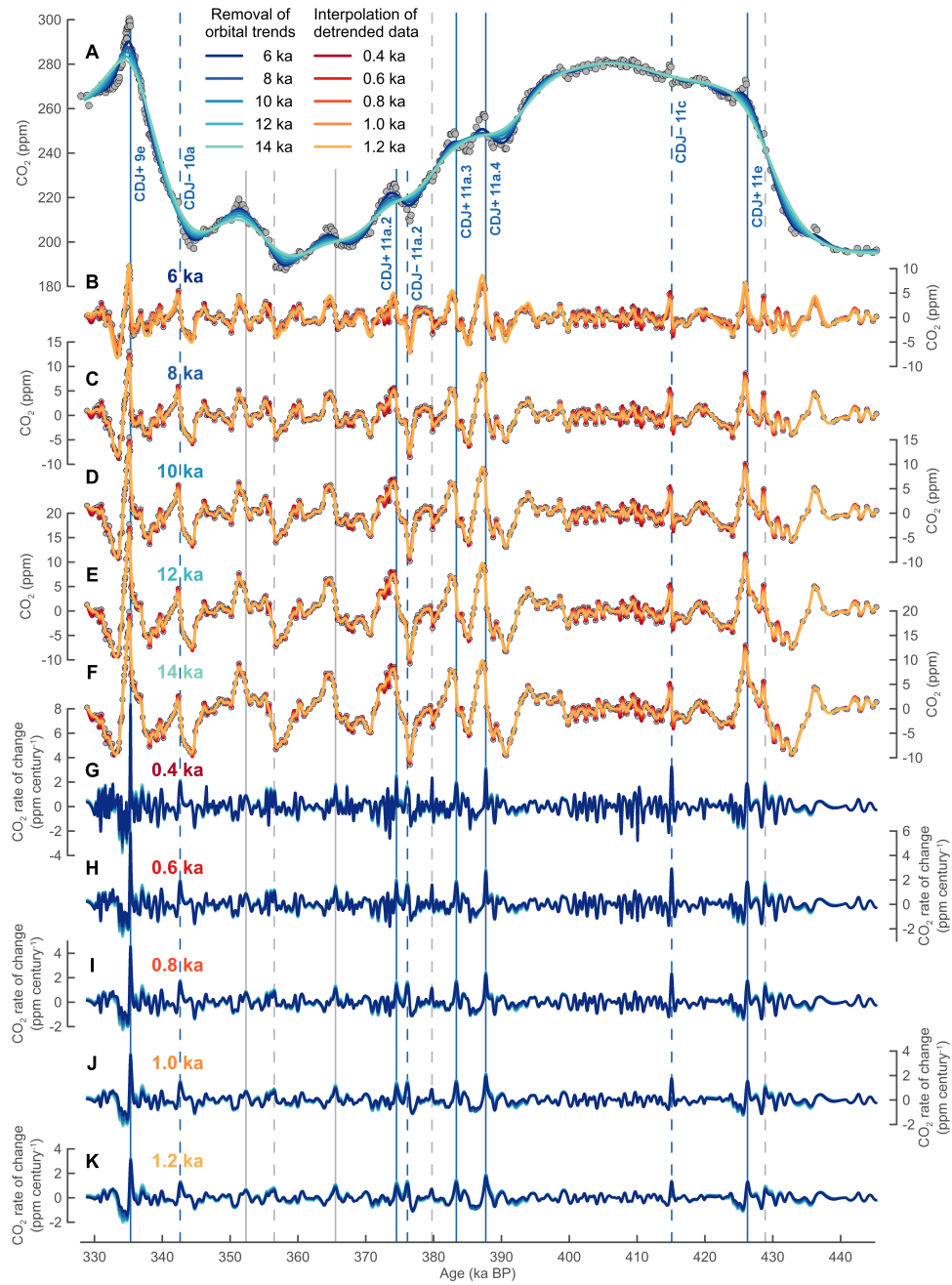


Fig. S3. Calculating the rate of change for our CO₂ record from the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core. (A) Removal of orbital to multi-millennial trends from the EDC CO₂ record (grey dots, this study) using five different smoothing splines (75) with cut-off periods (i.e., degrees of smoothing) ranging from 6 to 14 ka. (B-F) Detrended EDC CO₂ record after subtraction of splines shown in (A). A second set of five smoothing splines with cut-off periods ranging from 0.4 to 1.2 ka is applied onto the different detrended data sets, resulting in five times five annually resolved equidistant records containing only the centennial-scale variability. (G-K) Resulting rates of change of the detrended and interpolated CO₂ data from (B-F), grouped by their variant of spline interpolation. See legends for color-coding. Labelling and vertical lines are identical to Fig. 1.

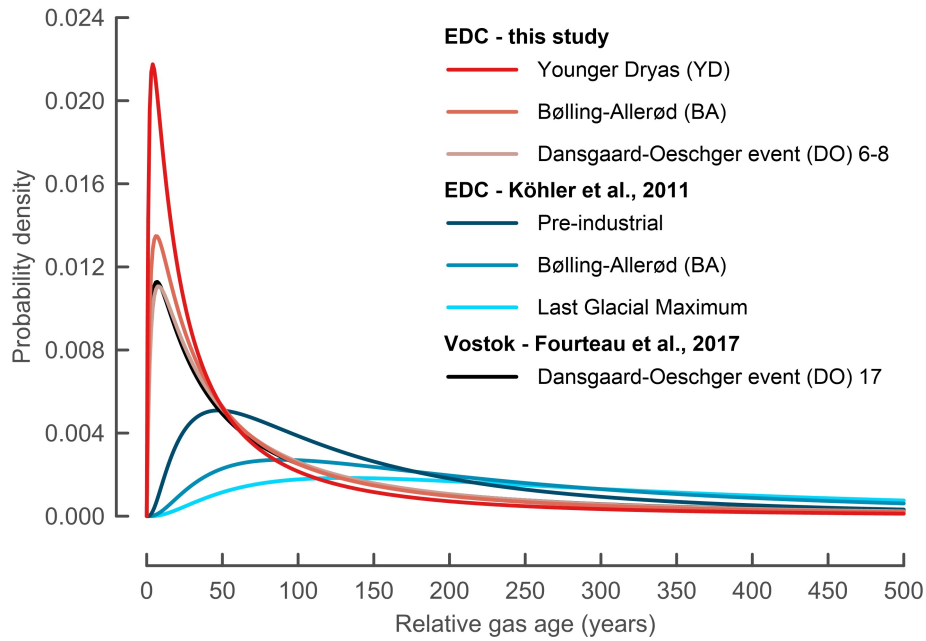


Fig. S4. Gas Age Distributions (GAD) for the low-accumulation sites EPICA Dome C (EDC) and Vostok for different climatic boundary conditions. All GAD shown here are represented by log-normal functions. The scenarios by Ref. (79) are approximations for the firn model outputs by Ref. (77), while our estimates are based on empirical smoothing of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet Divide (WD) CH₄ record to resemble the effective EDC CH₄ measurements (cf. Fig. S5, S6). The estimated GAD for the Preboreal (PB) is nearly congruent with the GAD for the Younger Dryas (YD) event and is omitted for clarity.

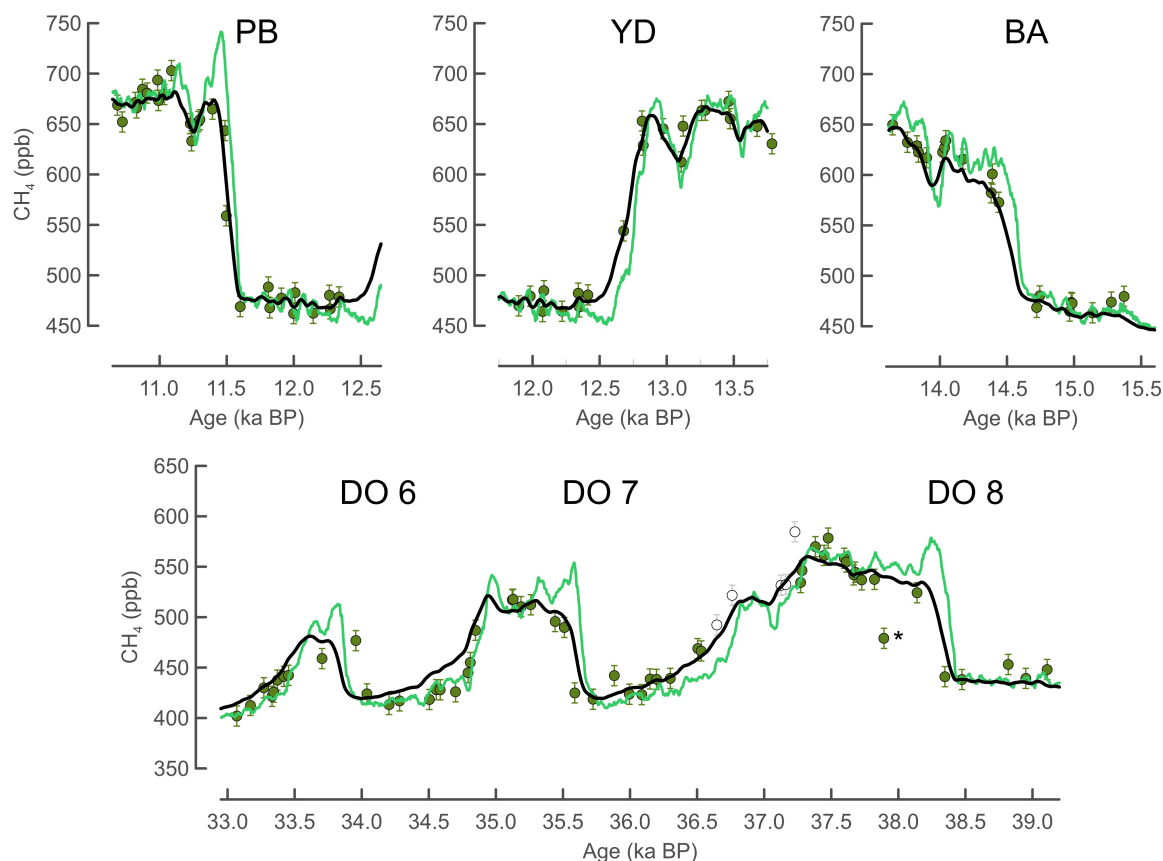


Fig. S5. Abrupt CH₄ transitions at the onsets of four different climatic periods during the last deglaciation and glacial period used for determining Gas Age Distributions (GAD) for the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core. These events include the onsets of the

Preboreal (PB), Younger Dryas (YD), and Bølling-Allerød (BA) during the last deglaciation (21, 83) and Dansgaard-Oeschger events (DO) 6 - 8 (21, 34) representative for firm column conditions during the colder glacial period. The black lines represent smoothed versions of the continuous West Antarctic Ice Sheet Divide (WD) ice core CH₄ data (light green lines) (18). The smoothed signals shown here (black lines) are produced using the mean values from 500 optimization iterations with the discrete EDC CH₄ data (green dots) varied within their uncertainty boundaries. White points in the lower panel lie outside the 2 ka optimization windows centered around the inflection points of the sharp CH₄ rises. The outlier (*) in the discrete EDC CH₄ data at 37.9 ka BP may be an artefact explained by staggered layering and has been excluded from the optimization runs (80, 81). See materials and methods for details.

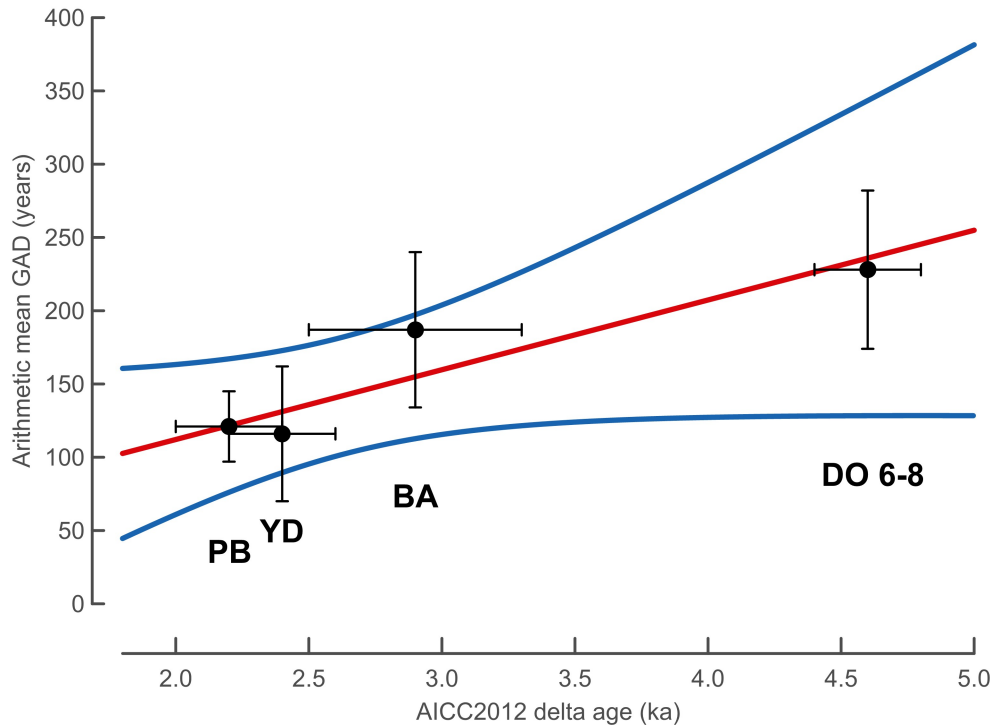


Fig. S6. Linear fit of optimized arithmetic mean values of estimated Gas Age

Distributions (GAD) for the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core. The arithmetic means are

based on a direct comparison between smoothed versions of the continuous CH₄ data from the West Antarctic Ice Sheet Divide (WD) ice core (18) and discrete data from EDC ice core

(21, 83) (Fig. S5). The gas-ice difference (delta age) was determined using the AICC2012 age scale (34). Here we focus on the onsets of three key periods, including the Preboreal (PB),

Younger Dryas (YD), and Bølling-Allerød (BA) periods all characterized by abrupt CH₄ rises. In addition, we also include Dansgaard-Oeschger events (DO) 6 - 8 representative for

firn column conditions during the colder glacial period. The used linear regression model (red line, $R^2=0.85$), including the 95% confidence intervals (blue lines), takes both variable

uncertainties (± 2 sigma) into account (85). All GAD are approximated by log-normal

functions. See Fig. S5, Eq. S2, and materials and methods for details.

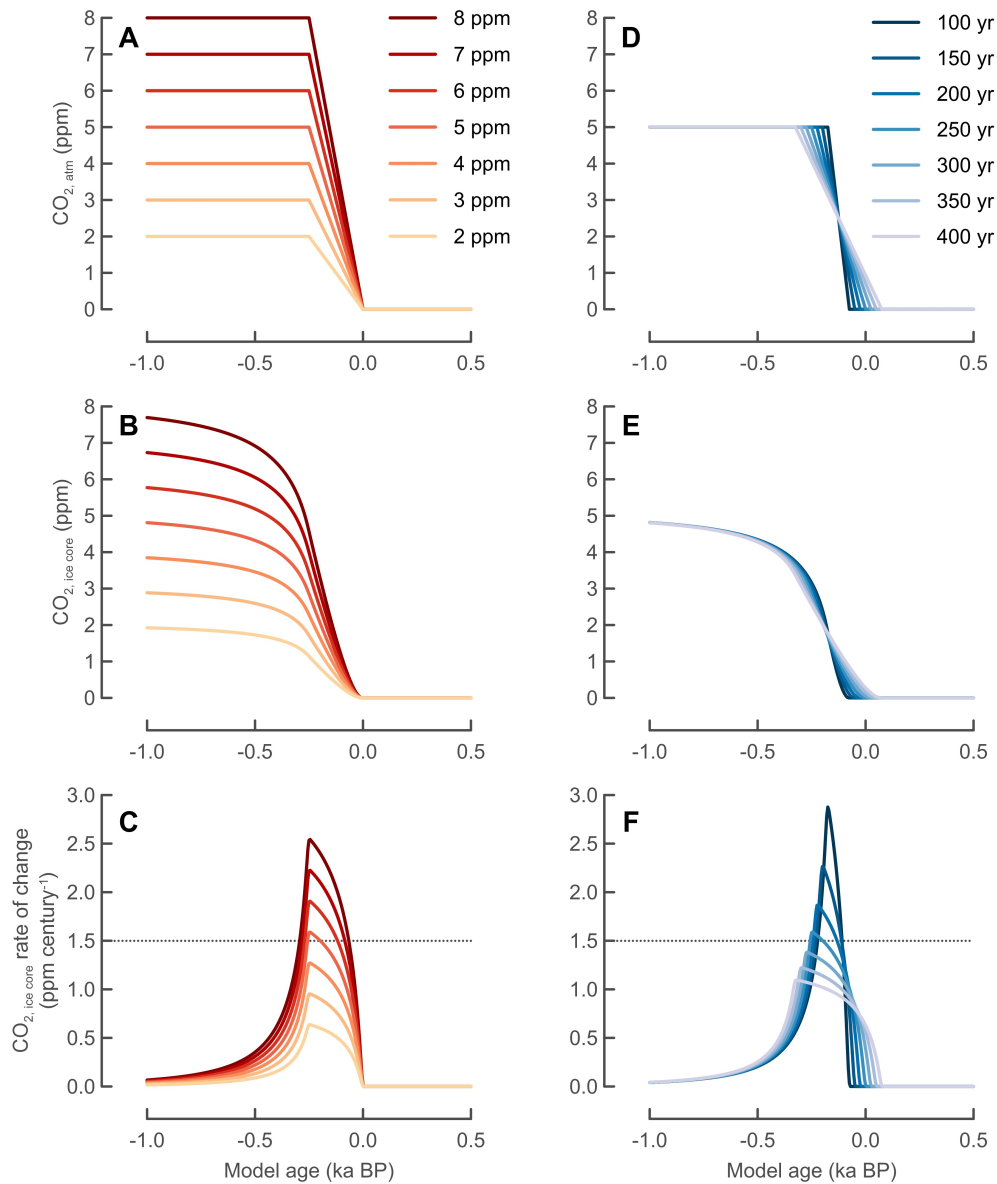


Fig. S7. Detection limit for Carbon Dioxide Jumps (CDJ). (A) Generic CDJ events (i.e., simple step functions) with atmospheric CO₂ rises ranging from 2 to 8 ppm and constant durations of 250 years. (B) Firm column smoothed version of (A) mimicking signals as they would be recorded by the EPICA Dome C ice core during the MIS 12a glacial maximum. MIS 12a represents the coldest interval associated with the strongest firm column-induced smoothing during MIS 9e - 12a. We estimate an arithmetic mean of 233 ± 132 years for the Gas Age Distribution (GAD) at MIS 12a (Eq. S2) based on an estimated delta age of 4.5 ± 0.3 ka (34) (see materials and methods for details). (C) Resulting rate of change of (B), comparable to what would be expected to be found in our ice core record (cf. Fig. S3). (D-F) Same as (A-C) but fixed 5 ppm CO₂ rises and changing durations (100 to 400 years). The dotted lines in (C) and (F) indicate the chosen threshold of 1.5 ppm per century in our CO₂ ice core record analyses (Fig. 1) used to identify CDJ events. See Fig. S8 for a comprehensive matrix of varying combinations of atmospheric CO₂ rises and durations. See supplementary text for details.

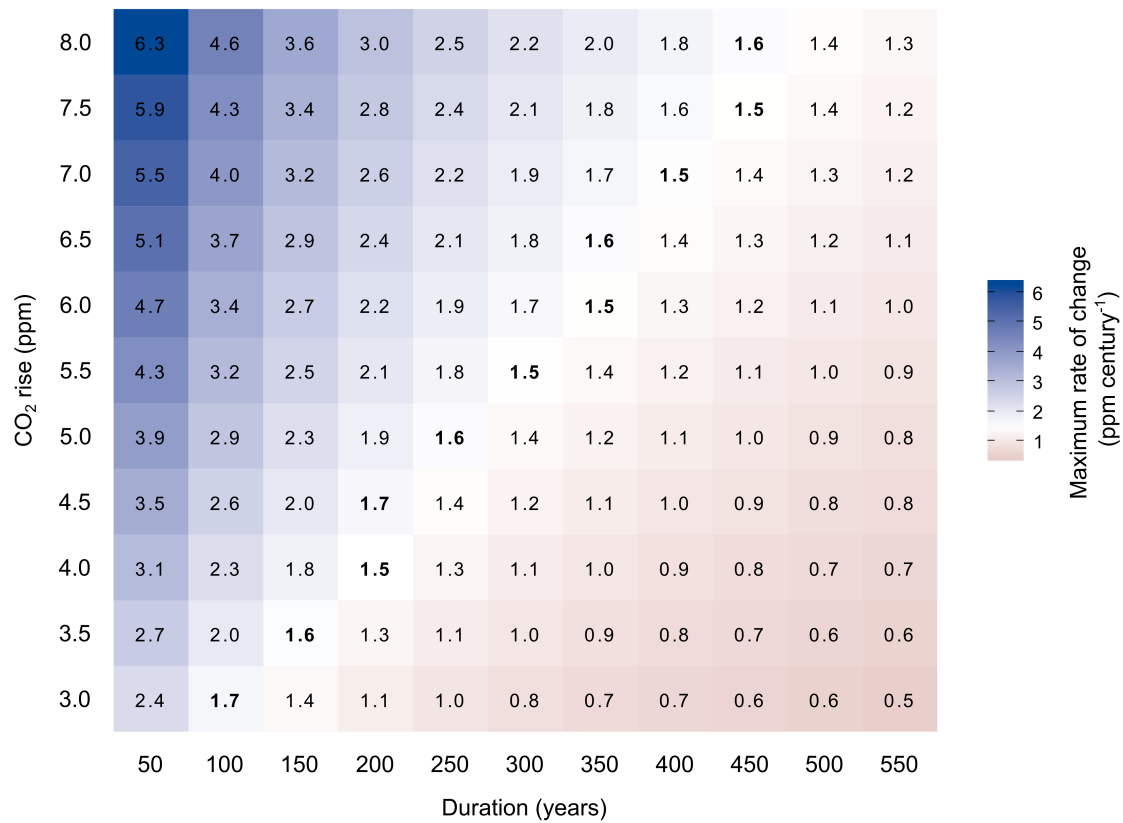


Fig. S8. Heat map of maximum amplitudes in the rates of change of generic Carbon Dioxide Jumps (CDJ) with varying atmospheric CO₂ rises and durations. Generic CDJ with CO₂ rises ranging from 3 to 8 ppm and durations ranging from 50 to 550 years in the atmosphere are smoothed to simulate a signal as it would be archived in the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core. Tiles represent peak values of the calculated rate of change of the simulated ice core signal. Identical methodologies to Fig. S7 are used (see supplementary text for details). All combinations of atmospheric CO₂ rises and durations exceeding the threshold value of 1.5 ppm per century in the ice core record would be identified as a CDJ in our EDC CO₂ record. For each magnitude of CO₂ rise (rows) the highest permissible duration that would just allow for CDJ detection is highlighted in bold.

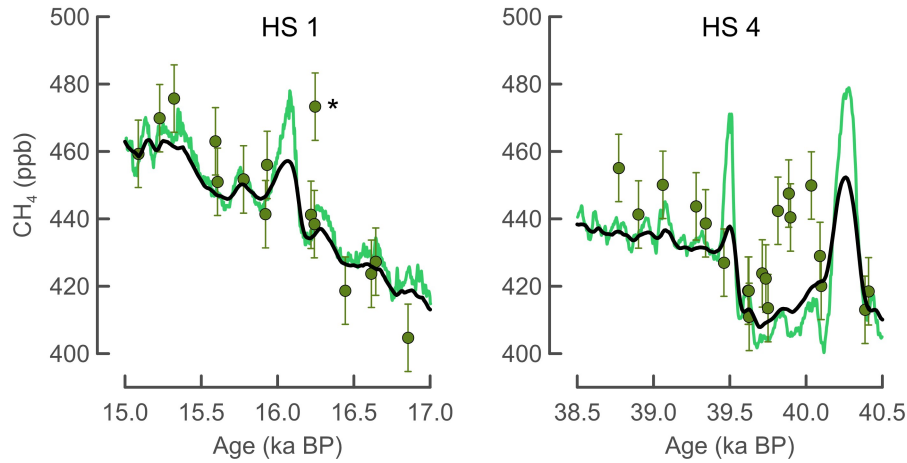


Fig. S9. Smoothing of short-lived overshoots in the CH₄ record in case of the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core. An estimation of the EDC firn column-induced smoothing (black line) of short-lived, small amplitude CH₄ overshoots (centered peaks) found in the continuous West Antarctic Ice Sheet Divide (WD) CH₄ record (light green line) for Heinrich Stadials (HS)1 and HS4 (18) during the last glacial period. The WD CH₄ record is smoothed using the linear relationship for EDC gas enclosure characteristics established in Fig. S6 (Eq. S2), assuming a gas-ice age difference (delta age) of 3.1 ± 0.3 ka and 4.1 ± 0.3 ka (34), resulting in GADs with arithmetic means of 166 ± 103 years (HS1) and 214 ± 123 years (HS4), respectively. Discrete EDC CH₄ data are shown as green dots. Note that mismatches in both records can be explained by age scale inconsistencies. The outlier in the EDC CH₄ record in close proximity to the HS1 WD CH₄ event (*) can likely be explained by staggered layering effects (80, 81) and should not be interpreted as an indicator for reduced smoothing of the EDC ice core.

Event	Duration (years)	CO ₂ rise (ppm)	Growth rate (ppm century ⁻¹)	Delta age (ka)	GAD _{mean} (years)
CDJ+ 9e	59±35	15.8±1.1	26.2±17.6	1.8±0.3	103±82
CDJ- 10a	257±81	12.3±1.9	4.9±1.7	3.3±0.3	175±107
CDJ+ 11a.2	203±160	6.8±1.5	3.4±2.6	2.9±0.3	156±100
CDJ- 11a.2	540±170	10.0±1.8	1.9±0.5	3.0±0.3	161±102
CDJ+ 11a.3	225±176	6.7±1.3	3.0±2.1	2.9±0.3	156±100
CDJ+ 11a.4	140±110	9.3±1.2	6.9±6.7	2.9±0.3	156±100
CDJ- 11c	191±123	12.9±2.7	6.9±5.3	2.1±0.3	118±86
CDJ+ 11e	312±103	9.9±1.7	3.2±1.0	2.2±0.3	123±88

Table S1. Estimated atmospheric characteristics for identified Carbon Dioxide Jumps (CDJ). Estimates are based on empirically-derived gas enclosure (firn smoothing) characteristics for the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core, commonly referred to as Gas Age Distributions (GAD). The widths of the GAD (GAD_{mean}) are determined based on the ice-gas age difference (delta age) as derived from the AICC2012 age scale (34). See materials and methods, Fig. 3B, S1B, S6, and Eq. S2 for details. Note that in the case of CDJ+ 11e the duration is likely overestimated whereas the rate of change is likely underestimated. See supplementary text and Fig. S1 for details.

Data S1 (separate file). Antarctic ice core derived CO₂ and CH₄ data from the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core covering Marine Isotope Stage 9e - 12a. An additional compilation of the CH₄ data is provided in a separate worksheet. See materials and methods in the supplementary materials for details.

- 5 **Data S2 (separate file). Marine sediment core derived planktic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ *G. bulloides* and benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ *C. wuellerstorfi* from the International Ocean Discovery Program (IODP) Site U1385 covering Marine Isotope Stage 9e - 12a.** See materials and methods in the supplementary materials for details.